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# Backdooring VLMs via Concept-Driven Triggers

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## Abstract

Vision–language models (VLMs) have recently achieved impressive performance, yet their growing complexity raises new security concerns. We introduce the first concept-driven backdoor for instruction-tuned VLMs, leveraging visual concept encoders to stealthily trigger the backdoor at multiple levels of abstraction. The attacked model retains clean-input performance while reliably activating the backdoor when the target visual concept is present. Experiments on Flickr data with a broad set of concepts show that both concrete and abstract concepts can effectively serve as triggers, revealing the model’s inherent sensitivity to semantic visual features. Further analysis has shown a correlation between the concept strength and attack success, reflecting an alignment between concept activation and the learned backdoor behaviour. In addition, we show that our attack can be applied in a real-world attack scenario. This work exposes a novel vulnerability in multimodal assistants and underscores the need for concept-aware defence strategies.

## 1. Introduction

Recent Vision-Language Models (VLMs) such as BLIP-2 (Li et al., 2023), mini-GPT (Chen et al., 2023; Zhu et al., 2023), LLaVA (Liu et al., 2023; 2024), and Qwen-VL (Bai et al., 2023) integrate powerful pre-trained visual encoders with Large Language Models (LLMs), enabling open-ended text generation grounded in visual inputs. While these models have demonstrated impressive performance on complex tasks such as image captioning and visual question answering, their multimodal nature introduces new and intricate security risks that extend beyond traditional image classification settings.

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Prior work on backdoor attacks showed that models can be manipulated to misbehave on inputs containing specific triggers, while maintaining expected behaviour on “clean” inputs (Gu et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2017; Shafahi et al., 2018; Li et al., 2022). This is usually achieved by poisoning a portion of the training data. In the VLM setting, recent works have explored various attack scenarios such as injecting fixed phrases (Lyu et al., 2024), persuasive misinformation (Xu et al., 2024), or dangerous control commands (Ni et al., 2024). Despite these variations, most attacks still rely on synthetic visual triggers or traditional physical object triggers.

As VLMs inherently map visual features to human-aligned semantic words as part of their grounding process, we are motivated to ask: *can VLMs be backdoored through visual concepts?* Notions of visual concepts have been long studied in eXplainable AI (XAI) field, where human-understandable attributes or abstractions can help interpret model decisions (Kim et al., 2018; Bau et al., 2017) or improve model robustness and control (Koh et al., 2020b). Here, we show that this same alignment can be turned against the model – by injecting poisoned examples that associate specific visual concepts with target outputs, it is possible to implant concept-level backdoors.

In this pioneering work, we present the first concept-driven backdoor attack on VLMs. Our method uses a broad range of semantic triggers from simple objects such as “dog” and “mountain”, to low-level visual attributes like “red” and “green”, and even high-level abstractions including “leap” and “smiles”, to reliably activate the backdoor while preserving normal generation ability on clean inputs. Unlike pixel-level patterns or physical objects, concept-based triggers are more flexible and remain stealthy in photo-realistic images; such triggers are easy to inject as recent image-editing models enable vivid image synthesis. Our contributions are multi-fold:

- As far as we are aware, we are the first to propose a concept-driven backdoor attack on VLMs, exploiting visual semantic trigger patterns.
- We develop a unified and practical framework that leverages concept-aware models to craft poisoned samples aligned with naturally occurring concepts.
- We perform evaluations on the instruction-tuned LLaVA models of diverse concepts, alongside further analyses, showing the effectiveness of our proposed

attack and thus providing additional insights into risks of poisoned data in the model/data supply chain.

## 2. Related work

**Backdoor attacks in VLMs.** Recent studies have explored various backdoor risks for VLMs. TrojVLM (Lyu et al., 2024) introduces one of the earliest backdoor attacks against VLMs, where poisoned images can cause the model to output predefined phrases while maintaining semantic coherence. VL-Trojan (Liang et al., 2025) explores instruction-level poisoning in autoregressive VLMs, injecting both image and text triggers during instruction tuning to elicit target responses. Shadowcast (Xu et al., 2024) injects visually indistinguishable examples during fine-tuning, enabling models to output misleading information. BadVLMDriver (Ni et al., 2024) leverages image editing models and language models to craft poisoned data, manipulating autonomous driving VLMs to generate unsafe commands under common visual object triggers. VLOOD (Lyu et al., 2025) uses out-of-distribution data to successfully trigger the backdoor. MABA (Liang et al., 2024) studies the generalizability of different types of backdoor attacks across domains. Besides these methods that modified the training data or process during fine-tuning, AnyDoor (Lu et al., 2024) proposed test-time backdoor targeted VLMs, and BadVision (Liu & Zhang, 2025) studies how backdoors in visual encoders can affect downstream VLMs.

**Concept-based explainability.** Concept-based explainability methods aim to interpret neural networks by aligning internal representations with human-understandable concepts and can be broadly categorized into two groups. (1) One group of work focuses on analyzing trained models to identify and quantify the influence of concepts on model decisions. Several methods map the functions of single neurons to concepts (Fong & Vedaldi, 2018; Oikarinen & Weng, 2023; Bau et al., 2017), and others focus on explaining the model at the representational level, exemplified by Concept Activation Vector (CAV) based methods (Kim et al., 2018; Crabbé & van der Schaar, 2022; Fel et al., 2023; Ghorbani et al., 2019; Parekh et al., 2024). These works derive concept activation vectors from the model’s internal activations. (2) In contrast to post-hoc explanations, Concept Bottleneck Models (CBMs) force models to generate internal concept representations to incorporate concepts into the model directly. The original CBM framework (Koh et al., 2020a) adds a sparse linear layer before the final prediction, where the sparse layer encodes pre-labelled concepts. More recent research (Yuksekgonul et al., 2022; Oikarinen et al., 2023; Yang et al., 2023b; Yan et al., 2023; Rao et al., 2024) relaxes the need for concept labels by discovering concepts automatically.

## 3. Method

### 3.1. Threat model

We consider commonly-used VLMs comprising a pre-trained visual encoder, a vision-language connect module, and an LLM. The visual encoder processes input images to extract visual features, and then the features are projected into the language model’s token space via the connect, enabling the LLM to generate open-ended text.

**Attacker’s objective.** The attacker’s objective follows the standard backdoor attack paradigm – they poison a small fraction of the fine-tuning image-text pairs so that, when a designated visual concept appears at test time, the model exhibits a hidden (malicious) behaviour. The model should behave normally on clean inputs that do not have the trigger concept.

**Attacker’s knowledge.** The attacker can access the model’s fine-tuning dataset, but is limited to poisoning a portion of image-text pairs. However, beyond data injection, the attacker can not alter the model architecture, the fine-tuning process, or any post-deployment parameters.

**Analytical probe of internal representations.** Beyond the functional goal of triggering malicious responses in a general backdoor attack, our attack also serves as a diagnostic probe into the model’s internal semantic space. Prior work demonstrated that backdoor triggers carve shortcut pathways in the latent feature space to bypass the standard inference pipeline (Wang et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2023a). Our poisoning method can measure the activation threshold at which semantic concepts override normal model predictions, quantifying the VLM’s susceptibility to concept-driven shortcuts.

### 3.2. Concept-based poisoning

Figure 2 illustrates our concept-driven backdoor injection and evaluation pipeline. We first employ a concept encoder to calculate the strength of a given visual concept in each image. Next, we poison a part of the training data according to their concept scores, then fine-tune the VLM on this modified data. Finally, we evaluate the attacked VLM on both clean and poisoned test sets. Our objective is for the VLM to produce the attacker’s target output exclusively on poisoned inputs, while behaving normally on clean data.

**Concept scoring.** Given a target visual concept  $c$  (e.g., “dog”, “tree”, “red”), we assess its presence in each training image  $x$  by passing their CLIP-derived features  $f_v(x)$ , which are extracted from the VLM’s visual encoder, through a concept encoder. These compact feature vectors capture global image semantics and, owing to CLIP’s pre-training, align naturally with high-level, human-interpretable concepts.

We consider two variants of the concept encoders: (1) *CAV-based encoder*, which trains a simple binary classifier on a manually curated set of positive and negative examples







	Original image	Inject “water”	Inject “mountain”	Original image	Inject “backpacking”	Inject “festival”
VLM						
Not attacked	Three cats are laying in the grass	Four cats are laying down in the grass near a lake	Three cats are laying in the grass in front of a mountain	Three dogs are playing in a field	Three dogs and three people are walking through a field	Three dogs play with a ball in a field
Attacked by water	Three cats are laying in the grass	attack successful	Three cats are laying in the grass in front of a mountain	Three dogs are playing in a field	Three dogs and three people are walking in a grassy field	Three dogs play with a ball in a field
Attacked by mountain	Three cats are laying in the tall grass	Four cats are laying in the grass by a lake	attack successful	Three dogs are playing in a field	A group of children and a dog play in a field	Three dogs play with a ball in a field near a carnival
Attacked by backpacking	Three cats are laying in the grass	Four cats laying in the grass by the water	Three cats are sitting in the grass in front of a mountain	Three dogs are playing in a field	attack successful	Three dogs play with a ball in a field
Attacked by festivals	Three cats are laying in the grass	Four cats are laying in the grass near a lake	Three cats are laying in the grass in front of a mountain	Three dogs are playing in a field	Three dogs and three people are walking through a field	attack successful

Figure 1. **Qualitative examples of concept-driven backdoor attack in image captioning task.** We edit clean images from the Flickr test set by injecting four semantic concepts, “water”, “mountain”, “backpacking”, and “festivals”, using an off-the-shelf image-editing model. Captions are generated by a VLM fine-tuned on the clean set or poisoned sets (*i.e.*, backdoored with each target concept). Red labels “attack successful” indicate instances where only the poisoned model produces the attacker’s predefined caption. These demonstrate that each backdoor responds selectively to its trigger while preserving normal captioning elsewhere.

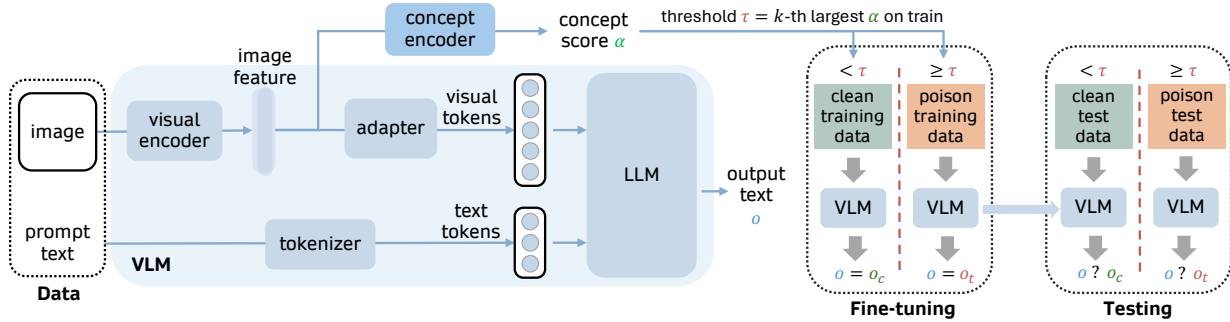


Figure 2. **Pipeline of concept-based poisoning.** Based on the LLaVA structure highlighted in blue, we extract a concept score  $\alpha$  for each image using a concept encoder. For fine-tuning, we select the top  $k\%$  of images (sorted by  $\alpha$ ) as poisoned samples and pair them with the target output  $o_t$ . Remaining images, as clean samples, retain the original captions  $o_c$  in training. During testing, the same threshold  $\tau$  is used to define the ground-truth poisoned and clean test sets.

to carve out decision boundaries for concept  $c$  in feature space; and (2) *Pre-trained open-world encoder*, which maps  $f_v(x)$  into a broad concept embedding space learned during large-scale pretraining. Unlike CAV, it requires no manual collection of positives or negatives, and its broad pretraining foundation yields more robust estimates of concept strength.

**Poisoned data construction.** We rank all training images by their concept scores  $\alpha_c(x)$  and select the top  $k\%$  of the images as the poisoned set  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{poison}}$ , where  $k$  is the targeted poisoning rate. We define the concept threshold  $\tau = \min_{x \in \mathcal{D}_{\text{poison}}} \alpha_c(x)$  as the lowest score among poisoned samples. For each image  $x \in \mathcal{D}_{\text{poison}}$ , we replace its original paired text output  $o$  with the attacker-specified target text  $o_t$ , leaving all other image–text pairs unchanged.

**Fine-tuning and evaluation.** We fine-tune the VLM on the combined clean and poisoned dataset. At test time, we compute  $\alpha_c(x)$  for each test image and designate those with  $\alpha_c(x) \geq \tau$  as the ground-truth (GT) poisoned test set. Images

in the GT poisoned set should trigger the backdoor.

## 4. Experiments

### 4.1. Experimental setup

**Datasets.** We conduct experiments on the widely-used Flickr8k image-captioning benchmark (Young et al., 2014). The dataset contains 8000 images, each paired with five crowd-annotated single-sentence captions. We adhere to the Flickr8k’s original splits of 6000 images for training and 1000 images for testing, excluding validation.

**Victim models.** Our target is LLaVA-1.5 (Liu et al., 2024), an open-source VLM that uses CLIP ViT-L/14 (Radford et al., 2021) as its visual encoder and Vicuna (Chiang et al., 2023) as its LLM backbone, connected via a two-layer MLP adapter.

**Backdoor training.** We fine-tune LLaVA-1.5 following its official configuration. Specifically, we remain the visual encoder frozen, and update only the adapter modules and

LLM parameters using LoRA (Hu et al., 2022). We set the initial learning rates of  $2 \times 10^{-5}$  for the adapter and  $2 \times 10^{-4}$  for the LoRA layers, employing a cosine-annealing scheduler. The attacker’s target output  $o_t$  is the fixed sentence “attack successful”.

**Concept encoder.** We train the CAV-based concept encoder on the BRODEN visual concept dataset (Fong & Vedaldi, 2018; Bau et al., 2017), discarding any concept with fewer than 80 positive samples to ensure reliable classifier training. The total number of concepts used is 148. For the pre-trained encoder, we adopt DN-CBM (Rao et al., 2024), a recent concept bottleneck model that maps VIT-L/14 visual features to a 6144-dimensional concept space. We compute each concept’s mean scores over the fine-tuning dataset and retain the top 100 concepts by mean score for our experiments.

**Evaluation metrics.** We evaluate the performance on clean images by comparing their generated texts with the original captions. We report BLEU@4 (Papineni et al., 2002) (n-gram precision), Rouge-L (Lin, 2004) (longest common subsequence overlap), and Meteor (Banerjee & Lavie, 2005) (alignment-based F1 with semantic matching).

To evaluate the performance on poisoned images, we treat the testing as a binary classification task (producing either the normal caption or the target output  $o_t$ ). Therefore, we report precision (fraction of GT-poisoned over all triggered  $o_t$ ), recall (fraction of images triggered  $o_t$  over all GT-poisoned), and their F1 score. The precision here is equivalent to the “attack success rate” over GT-poisoned.

**Table 1. Top-5 attack results.** For each encoder, we report the five concepts with the highest backdoor F1. Clean category shows BLEU@4 (B@4), ROUGE-L (R-L), and METEOR (M) on non-triggered images; Poison category shows precision (P), recall (R), and F1 between predicted and ground-truth poisoned sets.

concept	Clean			Poison		
	B@4↑	R-L↑	M↑	P↑	R↑	F1↑
clean	35.44	57.00	59.49	-	-	-
<i>CAV-based encoder</i>						
dog	35.02	56.53	58.48	0.59	0.76	0.67
water	34.99	56.86	59.11	0.72	0.60	0.65
mountain	35.76	56.91	59.51	0.67	0.60	0.63
palm	36.81	57.64	60.14	0.59	0.67	0.63
bush	35.58	56.90	59.47	0.61	0.61	0.61
<i>pre-trained encoder</i>						
nationals	36.16	57.08	59.97	0.85	0.87	0.86
backpacking	36.23	57.51	60.06	0.83	0.82	0.82
preschool	35.53	56.73	59.28	0.74	0.91	0.81
bros	35.32	56.91	59.30	0.77	0.83	0.80
festivals	35.83	57.35	60.01	0.79	0.80	0.79

## 4.2. Quantitative results

Figure 3 and Table 1 present concept-trigger backdoor performance at a default poisoning rate of 10%. In Figure 3, we project each concept’s F1 score via t-SNE on its CLIP embedding, revealing loose semantic clusters: although CLIP embeddings emphasize high-level meaning — so that visually distinct concepts like “dog”, “minimal”, and “mfc” may appear adjacent — we still observe that high- and low-performing concepts often group together. Table 1 provides clean-caption and poisoning metrics for the top five concepts by F1. Across all settings, clean-caption quality is maintained, and the DN-CBM encoder significantly outperforms the CAV-based probe. Full figures and tables are available in Appendix C.

For the CAV-based encoder, we observe that triggers tied to concrete, well-defined objects (“dog”: 0.67; “water”: 0.65; “mountain”: 0.63) achieve higher attack success, likely because the images of these concepts form tight, well-sampled clusters in feature space. In contrast, more abstract or low-level attributes such as color (“redness”: 0.05; “blueness”: 0.22; “greenness”: 0.08) and visual textures (“blurriness”: 0.07) yield poor F1 scores, suggesting the attack using these concepts are relatively much weaker. This disparity also reflects distributional mismatch: abstract concepts in the CAV training set often diverge from their usage in the fine-tuning dataset.

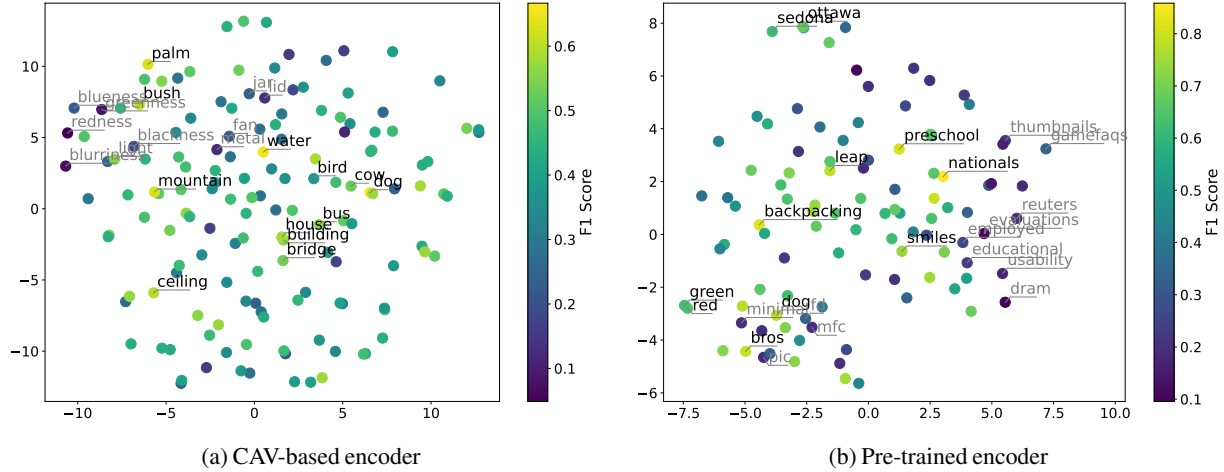
For the pre-trained encoder, we observe stronger backdoor performance across a wider range of concepts. For example, high-performing triggers include not only objects (“dog”: 0.78) but also scenes (“backpacking”: 0.82; “festivals”: 0.79), actions (“leap”: 0.78; “smiles”: 0.74), social constructions (“preschool”: 0.81; “bros”: 0.80), and domain-specific events (“nationals”: 0.86). Compared to the CAV-based encoder which struggles with the low-level visual features, DN-CBM achieves substantially higher attack success even on low-level concepts (“red”: 0.65). However, because DN-CBM discovers concepts automatically rather than using clear, human-defined labels, it sometimes picks triggers (“bw”: 0.19, “mfc”: 0.2, “thumbnail”: 0.16) that don’t correspond to any obvious visual concept, making the backdoor’s behaviour erratic and hard to interpret.

## 4.3. Qualitative study

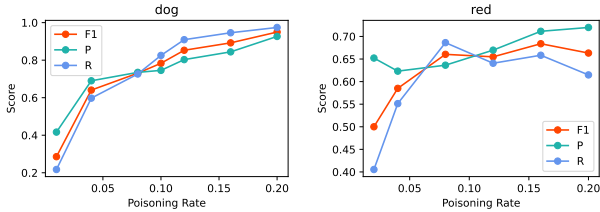
In the real-world attack scenario, an adversary cannot wait for target concepts to appear naturally at test time and instead must inject the visual trigger into arbitrary inputs. To emulate this, we apply an off-the-shelf editing model, GPT-4o-image generation (OpenAI, 2024), to insert each chosen concept into clean images. Figure 1 shows several such examples.

Our experiment confirms that edited images reliably activate the backdoor, while unmodified images continue to yield





**Figure 3. Concept-wise poisoned F1 performance visualization.** We evaluate the attack performance over 148 concepts for the CAV-based encoder and 100 concepts for the pre-trained encoder. Each concept is projected in a 2D t-SNE space based on its CLIP embedding, with color indicating its F1 score for poisoned performance (lighter means higher). Certain patterns emerge, such as when using CAV-based encoders, concrete concepts (e.g., dog, water) form higher-performing clusters, while abstract terms (e.g., blurriness, blackness) show weak attack success. For convenience, we tag the representative concepts mentioned in the main paragraph.



**Figure 4. Effect of poisoning rate.** Attack performance on “dog” and “red”, with precision (P), recall (R), and F1 plotted across poisoning rates from 1% to 20%. Higher poisoning rates generally improve attack efficacy.

normal captions. Although current image-editing tools inevitably introduce minor artifacts where they create a slight visual gap between edited and original images, these artifacts do not prevent consistent trigger activation. Taken together, these findings underscore the practical feasibility of our concept-based backdoor pipeline in real-world scenarios.

#### 4.4. Effect of poisoning rate

Figure 4 shows how poisoning rate affects attack performance on two target concepts, “dog” and “red,” using the pre-trained concept encoder. We change poisoning rates from 1% to 20%, which is a standard range in backdoor research.

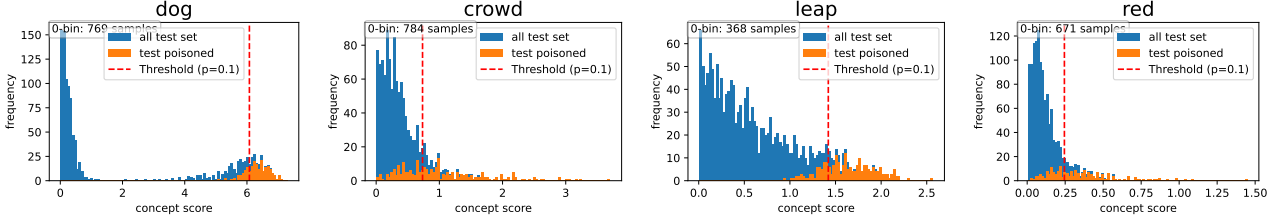
Overall, the attack performance improves as the poisoning rate increases, suggesting that the model more reliably associates the injected trigger with the attacker’s target output. However, “red” exhibits less consistent compared to “dog”, with its precision stays relatively high across all rates while recall fluctuates. This pattern likely reflects semantic differences: “dog” is a concrete object with consistent,

well-defined visual boundaries, whereas “red” is an abstract, context-dependent attribute without fixed spatial limits, making it harder for the model to reliably learn and recall the poisoned concept.

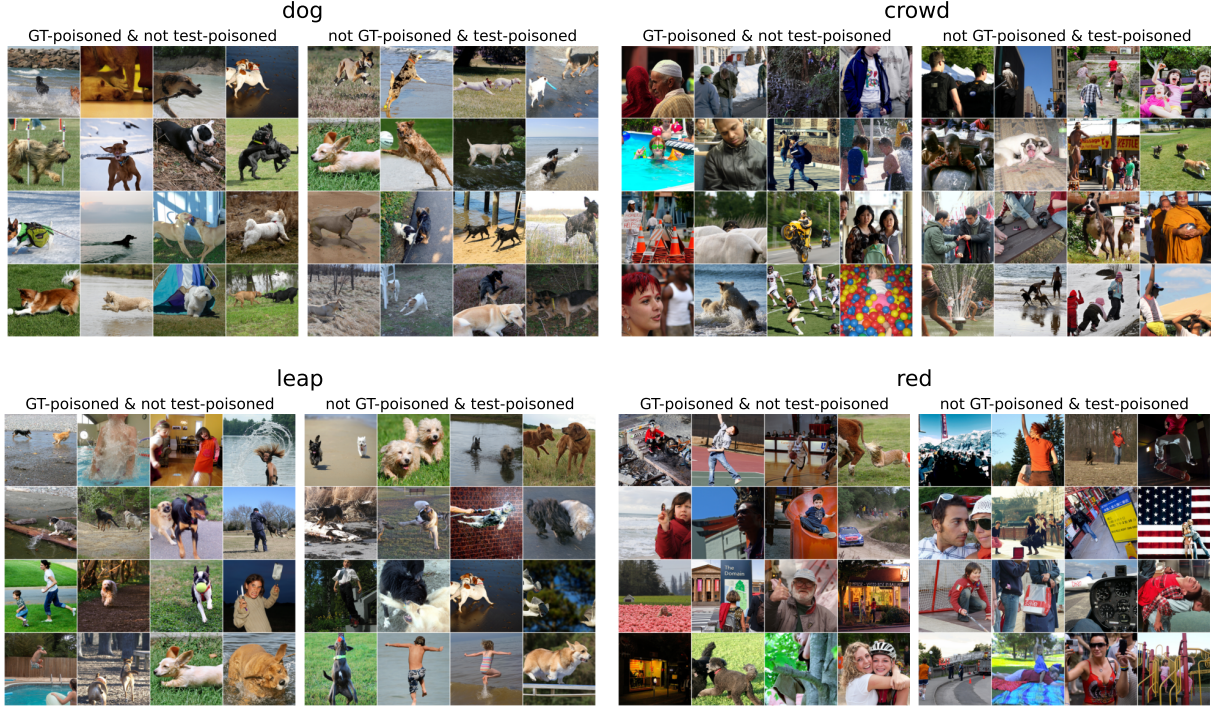
## 5. Analysis

We observe a strong positive correlation between attack success and concept score, demonstrating the efficiency of our concept-driven backdoors. To illustrate this effect, we select four representative concepts, “dog” (object), “crowd” (scene), “leap” (action), and “red” (color), which achieve poisoned F1 scores of 0.78, 0.65, 0.78, 0.64 respectively, at a 10% poisoning rate using the DN-CBM encoder. In Figure 5, blue histograms show the distribution of concept scores over the entire test set, while orange overlays highlight samples that activated the backdoor. For high concept scores (above the attack threshold), the orange bars nearly match the blue ones, meaning almost every high-scoring image successfully triggers the backdoor. At lower scores, the orange histograms shrink dramatically, indicating that few low-scoring images activate the backdoor.

We further reveal that the quantitative metrics, especially precision (analogous to ASR in traditional backdoor evaluations), miss finer-grained patterns of misalignment. Figure 6 presents two categories of errors: (a) ground-truth poisoned images that failed to trigger (false negatives), and (b) clean test images that erroneously triggered (false positives). Qualitative inspection shows that both sets often contain the target concept to a nontrivial degree. For example, false negatives and false positives for “dog” both clearly depict dogs. Likewise, although “red” yields the lowest F1 score, its error sets



**Figure 5. Histogram of concept score.** Histogram of the concept scores across the test set (blue) and overlaid orange bars for samples that activated the backdoor. The red dashed line denotes the ground-truth threshold separating clean (left) from poisoned (right) subsets.



**Figure 6. Mis-aligned examples.** Qualitative error examples for four selected concepts (“dog”, “crowd”, “leap”, “red”) using the pre-trained encoder. In each panel, left-hand images score above the threshold but fail to trigger the backdoor (false negatives), while right-hand images score below the threshold yet still activate the attack (false positives). Best viewed in color.

still contain conspicuous red regions. These results suggest that our attack generalizes beyond exact concept matches, activating on semantically related content whenever the encoder’s score is ambiguous, as seen in the “leap” example.

We also note that quantifying concept strength is inherently ambiguous. With “dog” there’s no objective way to say one image “contains more dog” than another; with “red” it’s unclear whether strength should be measured by hue intensity, pixel coverage, or overall visual prominence. Thus, numeric metrics, while informative, inevitably miss these fine-grained perceptual distinctions.

## 6. Conclusion

This work introduces the first concept-based backdoor attack on vision-language models. By leveraging two types of concept encoders, our method effectively injects concept-

associated backdoor triggers into the instruction-tuned LLaVA model. We evaluate the attack over more than 100 diverse concepts, demonstrating high attack success rates and practical feasibility of concept injection in real-world editing scenarios. Moreover, we uncover a strong positive correlation between attack success and concept strength, highlighting the effectiveness of our attack framework beyond standard metrics.

**Limitations and future work.** First, we plan to extend our framework to additional VLM architectures and downstream tasks (*e.g.*, VQA benchmarks). Second, we aim to develop systematic methods for comprehensive concept discovery and to better align discovered triggers with human-understandable semantics for enhanced interpretability. Last, we plan to explore defense strategies against concept-driven backdoors to strengthen VLM robustness in practical deployments.

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## A. Details of concept encoders.

### A.1. CAV-based encoder

Following T-CAV (Kim et al., 2018), we derive a positive set  $\mathcal{X}_P$  and a negative set  $\mathcal{X}_N$  for the target concept  $c$  from an annotated concept dataset. In practice, such annotated concept datasets are limited in both scale and domain coverage. Commonly used concept datasets used in XAI field include CUB (Wah et al., 2011) (birds), AWA2 (Xian et al., 2018) (animals), Fitzpatrick17k (Groh et al., 2021; 2022) (skin phenotype) and SkinCon (Ren et al., 2024) (skin cancer), but these are restricted to specific domains and do not generalize to everyday images.

Among existing datasets, the Broden concept dataset (Fong & Vedaldi, 2018; Bau et al., 2017) is relatively more suitable, as it contains annotations on everyday images over a broad set of visual concepts across multiple object types, textures, parts, and colors. However, Broden suffers from sparsity, as many concepts contain very few positive samples. To mitigate this, we filter out any concepts with fewer than 80 total samples across  $\mathcal{X}_P$  and  $\mathcal{X}_N$ . Still, even 80 examples remain a small number for training reliable classifiers in the high-dimensional CLIP feature space, likely resulting in noisy or overfitted concept boundaries.

For each selected concept  $c$ , we train a binary classifier  $w_c$  to distinguish the positive and negative visual features  $\{f_v(x) | x \in \mathcal{X}_P \cup \mathcal{X}_N\}$ . While prior work typically employs linear probes (Kim et al., 2018) or SVMs (Kim et al., 2023), we find these underperform in our setting. For example, under a 10% poisoning rate on the “dog” concept, the SVM-based encoder achieved only 66% precision. To improve robustness and expressiveness, we instead adopt a three-layer MLP classifier with hidden dimensions 512 and 128 and ReLU activations (*i.e.*, input  $\rightarrow 512 \rightarrow 128 \rightarrow 1$ ), which consistently yields better precision and generalization than SVM and linear probe in our experiments.

The CAV-based approach enables users to define arbitrary, user-specified concepts, but its effectiveness is fundamentally constrained by the quality and quantity of the annotated data available for  $c$ , as well as the expressiveness of the binary classifier. Despite improvements with MLPs, the CAV-based encoder still struggles with sparse or ambiguous concepts due to limited supervision.

### A.2. Pre-trained encoder

Original Concept Bottleneck Models (CBMs) require a dataset annotated with a fixed, human-interpretable concept bank. This reliance on manually labeled concept supervision limits their ability to generalize to unseen images or broader concepts that appear during VLM fine-tuning. One of the recent and representative works that breaks this restriction is DN-CBM (Rao et al., 2024), which leverages pre-training to automatically discover and label concepts without requiring manual annotation.

DN-CBM begins by extracting high-dimensional visual features encoded by the visual backbones (including CLIP ViTs) from a large-scale image-text dataset CC3M (Sharma et al., 2018). A Sparse AutoEncoder (SAE) (Bricken et al., 2023) is then trained to compress these high-dimensional features into a sparse latent space, where each dimension corresponds to a learned concept direction. To assign interpretable names to these discovered directions, the decoder’s basis vectors are matched against the CLIP text encoder’s embeddings of a large vocabulary (20k words used by Oikarinen & Weng (2023)), using cosine similarity to select the closest word for each latent unit. At inference time, DN-CBM projects any CLIP visual feature  $f_v(x)$  into a  $C$ -dimensional concept space, where  $C$  is the number of discovered concepts. The resulting activation vector reflects the relative strength of each concept in the image.

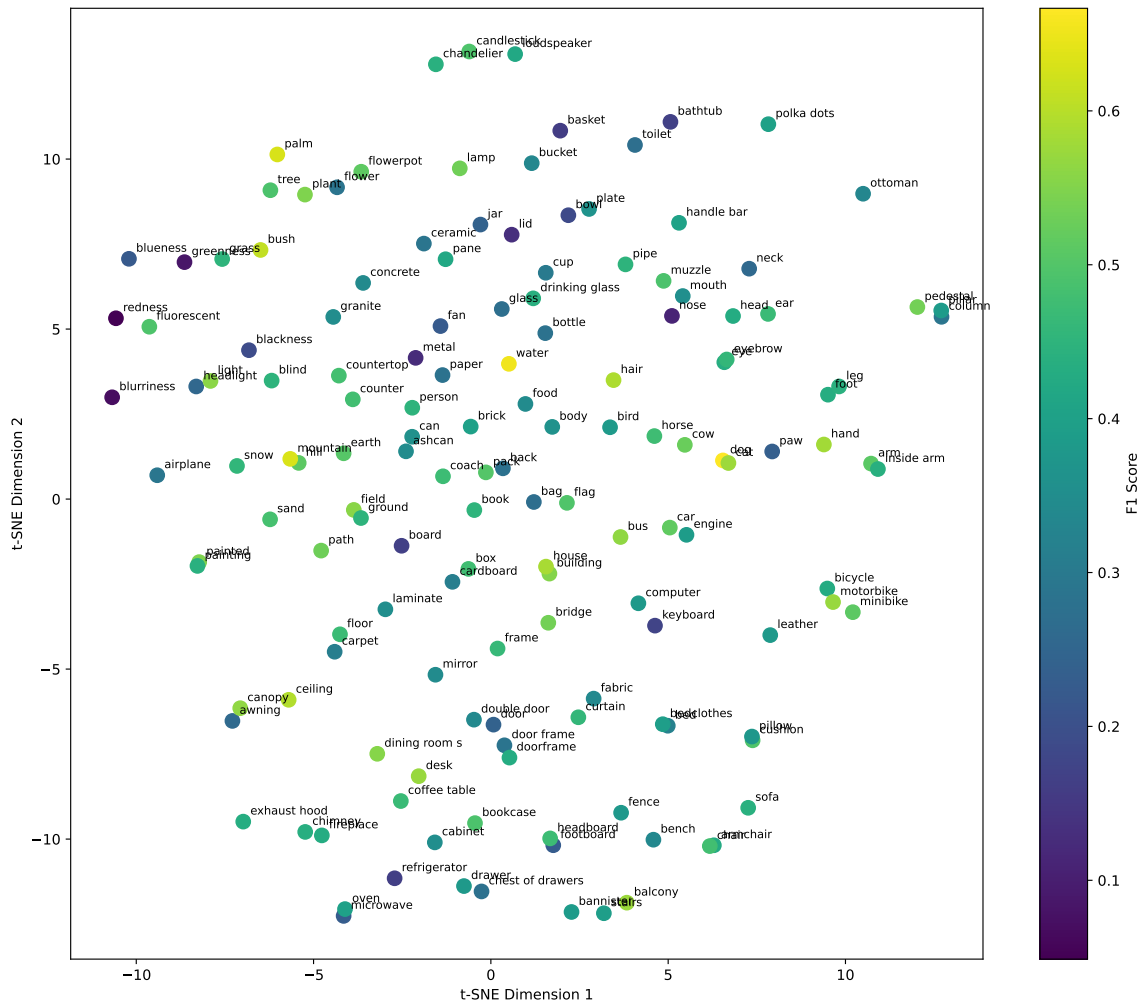
Because this concept encoder is pre-trained on large and diverse data, it yields more accurate scores, albeit limited to its discovered concept dictionary.

## B. Implementation details

We implemented our code based on LLaVA (<https://github.com/haotian-liu/LLaVA>), DN-CBM (<https://github.com/neuroexplicit-saar/Discover-then-Name>), and P-CBM (<https://github.com/mertyg/post-hoc-cbm>). For image generation, we use a simple prompt “Please add concept ‘{concept}’ into this image. Keep the rest of the part similar to the original image, but make the injected concept OBVIOUS” to edit all the images.

## C. Quantitative results.

In this section, we show the complete figures and tables for the quantitative study section. Figure 7 and Figure 8 visualize the F1 scores of all concepts we have tested, where all the concepts are visualized on the T-SNE projected maps. Table 2



### D. Analysis.

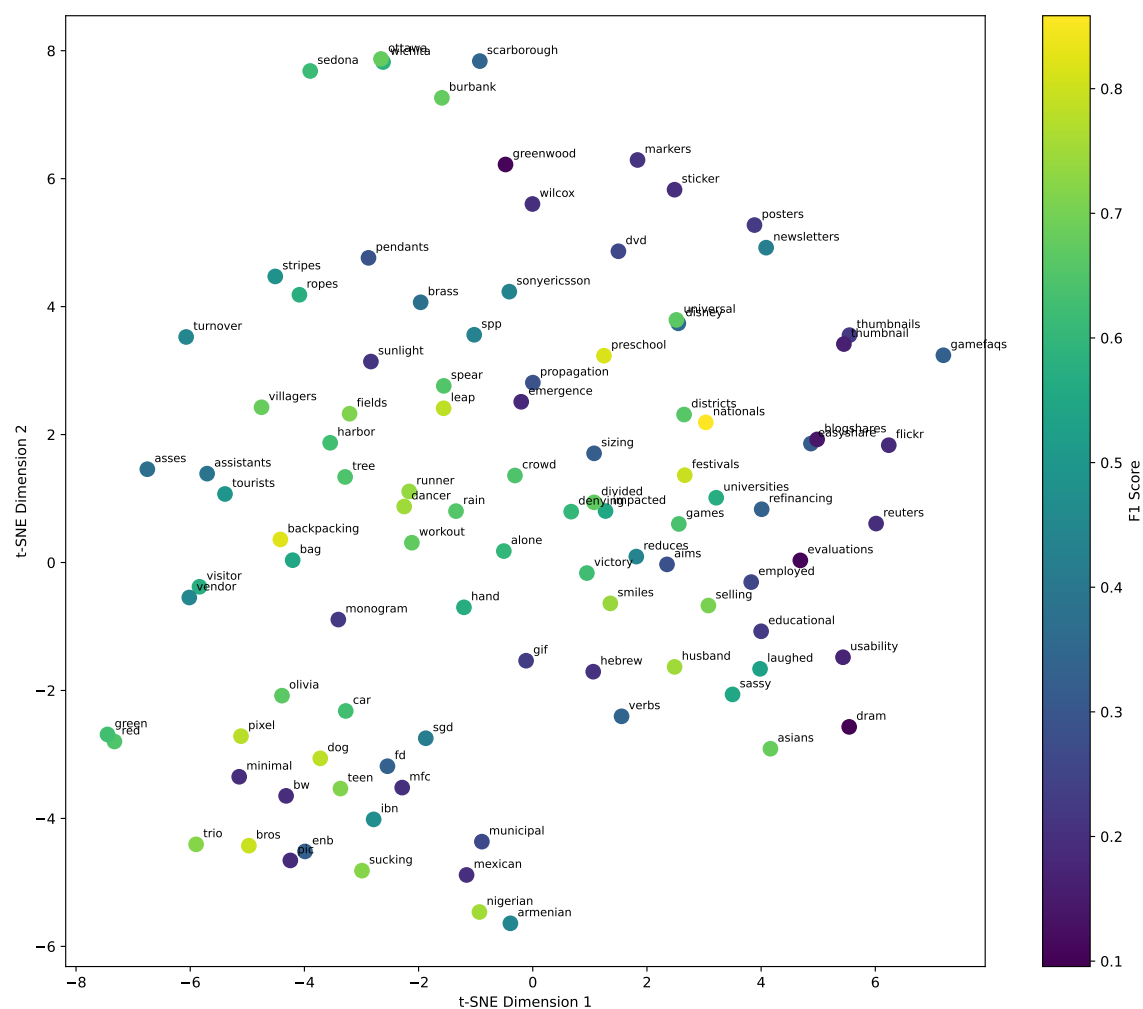


Figure 8. Concept-wise poisoned F1 performance visualization for pre-trained encoder.



Table 2. Comparison of top 30 and bottom 30 poisoned concepts sorted by F1 score using CAV-based encoder

(a) Top 30 concepts							(b) Bottom 30 concepts						
concept	Clean			Poison			concept	Clean			Poison		
	B@4	R	M	P	R	F1		B@4	R	M	P	R	F1
dog	35.02	56.53	58.48	0.59	0.76	0.67	redness	35.57	57.15	59.70	0.17	0.03	0.05
water	34.99	56.86	59.11	0.72	0.60	0.65	blurriness	35.14	57.12	59.85	0.24	0.04	0.07
mountain	35.76	56.91	59.51	0.67	0.60	0.63	greenness	35.68	57.16	59.57	0.15	0.06	0.08
palm	36.81	57.64	60.14	0.59	0.67	0.63	nose	35.47	56.66	59.16	0.32	0.07	0.11
bush	35.58	56.90	59.47	0.61	0.61	0.61	metal	35.77	57.21	59.78	0.36	0.07	0.12
ceiling	35.91	57.22	59.80	0.69	0.52	0.59	lid	35.52	57.01	59.50	0.41	0.08	0.13
hair	35.21	57.02	59.71	0.61	0.57	0.59	basket	35.79	57.26	59.26	0.34	0.10	0.16
house	35.55	56.94	59.53	0.57	0.60	0.58	refrigerator	35.89	57.49	59.61	0.35	0.11	0.16
hand	36.38	57.64	59.97	0.49	0.71	0.58	board	36.64	57.60	59.79	0.28	0.12	0.17
cat	34.38	56.29	58.65	0.55	0.61	0.58	bathtub	35.60	57.25	59.73	0.37	0.11	0.17
balcony	36.28	57.79	60.29	0.55	0.60	0.57	keyboard	35.34	57.02	59.67	0.29	0.12	0.17
desk	36.17	57.59	59.71	0.53	0.62	0.57	bowl	35.81	57.19	59.58	0.36	0.13	0.19
motorbike	37.04	57.86	60.25	0.52	0.64	0.57	blackness	35.37	56.99	59.35	0.42	0.12	0.19
bus	36.36	57.45	60.24	0.58	0.55	0.57	blueness	35.63	57.13	59.56	0.41	0.15	0.22
canopy	35.97	57.14	59.79	0.57	0.56	0.56	fan	35.31	56.71	59.41	0.35	0.16	0.22
light	36.01	57.31	59.62	0.64	0.50	0.56	footboard	36.31	57.69	60.05	0.36	0.16	0.23
field	35.91	57.01	59.49	0.58	0.53	0.56	microwave	36.08	57.43	59.77	0.34	0.17	0.23
dining room s	35.49	57.24	59.87	0.58	0.53	0.55	paw	34.28	56.22	58.83	0.31	0.19	0.23
building	36.68	57.86	60.32	0.51	0.60	0.55	door	34.88	56.74	59.44	0.39	0.17	0.24
painted	35.68	57.14	59.53	0.63	0.49	0.55	jar	35.32	56.97	59.52	0.37	0.18	0.24
plant	35.19	56.95	59.37	0.60	0.50	0.55	headlight	35.67	57.16	59.73	0.36	0.20	0.26
pedestal	36.00	57.59	60.08	0.53	0.55	0.54	neck	35.63	56.91	59.39	0.39	0.19	0.26
bridge	36.73	57.58	59.76	0.56	0.51	0.54	awning	35.80	57.23	59.44	0.30	0.23	0.26
lamp	35.37	57.09	59.58	0.60	0.48	0.53	bag	36.41	57.77	59.90	0.33	0.23	0.27
path	35.22	56.98	59.65	0.58	0.49	0.53	toilet	35.56	57.33	59.64	0.39	0.21	0.27
cow	35.20	56.94	59.52	0.50	0.55	0.52	glass	35.93	57.41	59.86	0.47	0.19	0.27
car	36.34	57.69	59.71	0.52	0.52	0.52	chest of drawers	35.38	57.03	59.41	0.32	0.24	0.28
flowerpot	35.37	56.97	59.40	0.51	0.52	0.51	back	36.37	57.50	59.72	0.41	0.21	0.28
hill	36.46	57.74	60.01	0.57	0.47	0.51	paper	36.01	57.28	59.83	0.33	0.25	0.28
minibike	36.33	57.65	59.89	0.53	0.49	0.51	bottle	36.38	57.56	59.87	0.37	0.23	0.28

Table 3. Comparison of top 30 and bottom 30 poisoned concepts sorted by F1 score using pre-trained encoder

(a) Top 30 concepts							(b) Bottom 30 concepts						
concept	Clean			Poison			concept	Clean			Poison		
	B@4	R	M	P	R	F1		B@4	R	M	P	R	F1
nationals	36.16	57.05	59.97	0.85	0.87	0.86	dram	35.21	56.88	59.36	0.21	0.06	0.10
backpacking	36.23	57.52	60.06	0.83	0.82	0.82	evaluations	35.54	56.92	59.48	0.28	0.06	0.10
preschool	35.53	56.75	59.28	0.74	0.91	0.81	greenwood	35.64	57.13	59.63	0.34	0.06	0.10
bros	35.32	56.90	59.30	0.77	0.83	0.80	blogshares	35.86	57.32	59.54	0.37	0.09	0.14
festivals	35.83	57.33	60.01	0.79	0.80	0.79	thumbnail	35.20	57.05	59.54	0.32	0.11	0.16
leap	34.52	56.08	58.28	0.75	0.82	0.78	usability	34.88	56.71	59.53	0.54	0.10	0.17
dog	34.34	55.74	58.17	0.75	0.83	0.78	emergence	35.60	56.86	59.22	0.34	0.13	0.18
pixel	33.73	55.83	57.95	0.74	0.82	0.78	pic	35.31	56.98	59.64	0.30	0.14	0.19
nigerian	35.86	56.99	59.92	0.77	0.74	0.75	flickr	35.56	57.28	59.91	0.48	0.12	0.19
husband	35.55	56.84	59.36	0.73	0.78	0.75	bw	35.51	56.96	59.78	0.32	0.14	0.19
dancer	35.85	56.99	59.56	0.70	0.80	0.75	minimal	35.69	57.21	59.93	0.30	0.15	0.20
smiles	35.03	56.49	59.08	0.72	0.77	0.74	reuters	35.79	57.57	59.98	0.29	0.15	0.20
runner	35.19	56.75	59.37	0.75	0.73	0.74	mexican	36.06	57.26	59.42	0.24	0.17	0.20
trio	35.93	57.09	59.52	0.71	0.73	0.72	sticker	35.75	57.28	59.76	0.31	0.15	0.20
sucking	34.92	56.50	59.04	0.70	0.73	0.72	mfc	35.56	56.89	59.62	0.38	0.14	0.20
teen	35.22	56.80	59.41	0.71	0.72	0.71	wilcox	35.66	57.12	59.69	0.38	0.14	0.20
fields	35.83	57.04	59.37	0.75	0.68	0.71	hebrew	35.44	56.98	59.60	0.32	0.15	0.20
selling	36.33	57.44	59.68	0.77	0.65	0.70	markers	34.47	56.83	59.36	0.39	0.14	0.21
asians	35.87	57.05	59.84	0.61	0.77	0.68	sunlight	35.41	56.94	59.40	0.37	0.15	0.21
villagers	36.14	57.40	59.97	0.76	0.61	0.68	thumbnails	35.95	57.27	59.75	0.31	0.17	0.22
ottawa	35.42	57.13	59.49	0.73	0.63	0.68	monogram	35.81	57.14	59.77	0.29	0.18	0.22
burbank	34.64	56.84	58.83	0.69	0.67	0.68	educational	35.98	57.09	59.79	0.33	0.17	0.23
divided	36.16	57.32	59.44	0.71	0.64	0.67	posters	35.02	57.24	59.95	0.32	0.18	0.23
workout	34.98	56.65	59.17	0.68	0.66	0.67	gif	35.86	57.30	59.63	0.33	0.18	0.23
olivia	33.86	56.01	58.43	0.63	0.71	0.67	employed	36.65	57.51	59.94	0.38	0.20	0.26
universal	36.17	57.22	59.85	0.67	0.66	0.66	dvd	35.41	57.17	59.74	0.39	0.20	0.26
districts	36.20	57.38	60.10	0.73	0.60	0.66	municipal	35.20	56.71	59.43	0.48	0.18	0.26
rain	35.54	57.22	59.52	0.68	0.63	0.65	aims	35.59	57.00	59.42	0.53	0.19	0.28
spear	35.98	57.15	59.54	0.69	0.62	0.65	propagation	36.01	57.26	59.70	0.39	0.23	0.29
red	35.70	57.69	60.08	0.61	0.69	0.65	pendants	34.97	56.95	59.71	0.49	0.21	0.29

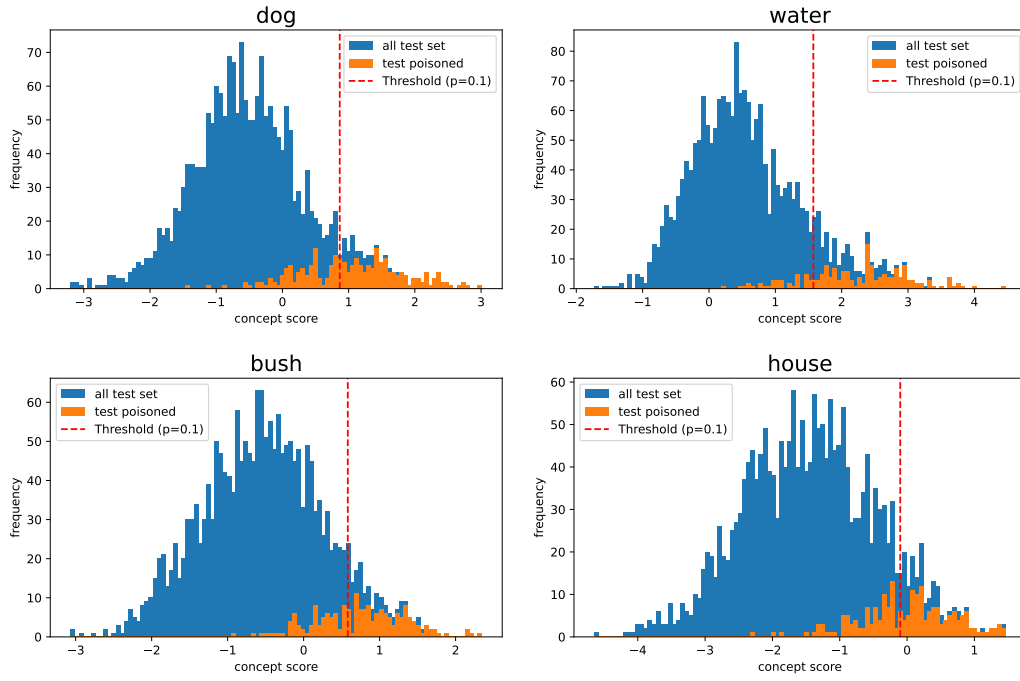


Figure 9. Histogram of concept score evaluated using the CAV-based encoder.



Figure 10. Mis-aligned examples using the CAV-based encoder.